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ER NORMAL GRANARY



CONSUMERS' GUIDE

MARCH 1, 1940



STOCKINGS



QUALITY GRADES



FARMERS' SHARE



YARDSTICKS

CONSUMERS' GUIDE

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NOAH WEBSTER put 1828 in the history books by publishing in that year the first American Dictionary of the English Language.

One hundred and ten years later, in 1938, the Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act was passed and work started immediately on making another dictionary, a Consumers' Dictionary of Foods.

The law doesn't call this work dictionary-making. It simply authorizes the Secretary of Agriculture to fix and establish a reasonable standard of quality, and/or reasonable standards of fill of container, for any food, with a few exceptions, whenever such action will promote honesty and fair dealing in the interest of consumers.

Ultimately that will mean that many foods will have for the first time legal definitions and standards of identity.

To date definitions have been worked out for canned tomatoes and tomato paste, tomato catsup, and tomato juice; frozen and dried eggs, egg yolks; canned peaches, canned apricots, canned pears, and canned cherries.

Right now the Food Standards Committee of the Department, which includes 2 Department and 4 State food officials, is working on definitions for margarine, bread, and canned fruits for salad and canned fruit cocktail.

Since the definitions are made in the interest of consumers and since no one should know what that interest is better than a consumer, consumers who have any ideas on margarine, bread, or canned fruits for salad and canned fruit cocktail are invited to tell the Food Standards Committee about them. The address is: Food Standards Committee, Food and Drug Administration, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.

What the Committee wants from consumers is answers to these questions:

- (1) Do you know what goes into margarine or do you want the label to tell you?
- (2) How bread should be defined.
- (3) What belongs in canned fruits for salad and fruit cocktail?

IF CONSUMERS SHOULD TURN TODAY TO their dictionary of foods as it is being compiled by the Department of Agriculture, they would find this entry under canned peaches:

"... a regulation which will promote honesty and fair dealing in the interest of consumers is hereby made and promulgated," the definition begins.

First, the regulation says, canned peaches are the food prepared from mature white or yellow freestone or clingstone peaches.

Under the regulation the canned peach label must show which varietal group is contained in the can.

Such peaches may be packed whole either peeled or unpeeled, or they may be pitted and then packed in one of the following forms; peeled or unpeeled halves, peeled quarters, slices or diced, and finally, peeled mixed pieces of irregular sizes and shapes.

Again the label must specify in just what form the peaches have been packed. They may be packed in one of 4 kinds of syrups: light, medium, heavy, or extra heavy, or in water or peach juice. In making syrup, canners may use either sucrose or a mixture of dextrose and sucrose, but the syrups they use must meet a sweetness specification laid down in the regulation.

A legend on the label must tell consumers the type of syrup or other packing liquid. The taste of canned peaches may be modified with spices, vinegar, peach pits or kernels, or with flavorings. No more than one peach pit to each 8 ounces of canned peaches may be used except in the case of whole peaches. Peach kernels may be used in all except whole peaches, but peach pits and kernels cannot be used together.

Again the label will tell the consumer the story. Where spices, vinegar, flavoring, peach pits, or peach kernels are added they must all be indicated.

Honesty and fair dealing also requires, according to the Department of Agriculture, that consumers be protected from only partly filled cans of peaches. A can of peaches must be filled with the maximum amount of peaches that the can will hold without crushing and breaking. If a can of peaches contains less than this amount of peaches, it must be labeled, "Below Standard in Fill."

Finally all canned peaches must come up

to a minimum standard of quality or else carry a label describing the inferiority. Peaches may fail to measure up to this minimum standard if the pieces aren't tender enough, if they are too small or too irregular in size, if they are "gouged" in trimming or otherwise unseemly, if they are crushed, broken, or not well peeled.

Reduced to the kernel, as it were, the canned peach definition assures consumers from now on that they can look at a label on a can of peaches, and tell what kind of peaches they are buying, in what form they have been packed, in what kind of liquid they have been packed, what's been used to flavor them, whether the can is properly filled or not, and whether the peaches are above a minimum quality or not.

The law does not require that the peaches in the cans containing fruit of better than minimum quality be graded and the labels carry the grade.

A NUTTY FORMULA THAT WILL COME IN handy for consumers who are too smart to cook by rule of thumb methods has been worked out by the Bureau of Home Economics.

It answers the bewildering question, how many nuts must you shell to get a cup of nut meats?

There are all kinds of nuts, of course, and the unshelled equivalent of a cup of nut meats varies with the nut. But here are some figures giving the equivalents for the most popular nut varieties.

A half pound of peanuts will shell out to a cup of nut meats. Slightly less than a pound of filberts gives you a level cup of filbert nut meat. An even pound of almonds will shell out to an even cup of nut meats, while it takes just a bit more than a pound of English walnuts to crack out a measuring cup of meats. Before you can get a cup of black walnut meats you have to shell about two pounds of nuts.

For more information about nuts, including recipes, consumers may write to the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., for the Bureau of Home Economics Bulletin, "Nuts and Ways to Use Them." The bulletin costs 5 cents in cash.

PLEASE NOTE

NO ISSUES OF CONSUMERS' GUIDE WERE PUBLISHED BETWEEN NOVEMBER 1, 1939, AND MARCH 1, 1940.

The Nation's Extra Wheat Bin

3

How the Ever Normal Granary machinery fills the bin that steadies wheat prices and assures bread for consumers

DURING the seven years of famine, the Bible says, in all the land of Egypt there was bread, though there was famine in other lands. In Canaan, Jacob heard the whisper that went through the ancient world.

"I have heard that there is grain in Egypt," he said to his sons. "Get you down thither, and buy for us from thence; that we may live, and not die."

It's far down the years from Joseph and his brethren today, but there's hardly a landmark on the road through the years that isn't connected in some way with bread. Check off the slogans men have shouted when they've raised their voices, or unfurled sails, or pulled up stakes for a new go at life, and you'll notice that it was bread and land they asked for, bread and peace, bread and liberty, and sometimes, just bread.

THERE NEVER HAS BEEN A BREAD SHORTAGE in the United States, and famine isn't the word for the thoughts of a man who is listening to his radio, a block from the corner grocery, one room from the smell of cooking in the kitchen.

But don't for a moment let the 1940 models of radios and autos lead you to believe that we are so far out of the realm of necessity we never give a thought to bread. In the first week of September when loudspeakers brought incessant talk of war, people in some cities went from store to store in search of sugar—very much in the manner of the 10 sons of Jacob going out of Canaan to Egypt in search of bread.

Prices and people had the jitters in that first week of the war. And while sugar had the headlines, uneasy thoughts about bread crossed people's minds too.

Despite the corner store and the cooking in the kitchen, people seriously and solemnly asked each other and the newspapers and Government agencies, is there going to be enough food?

There were answers to this question, immediate ones, by the Secretary of Agriculture and by the Consumers' Counsel of the Department of Agriculture.

The answer was and is, yes. And one of the reasons why the answer was an immediate and reassuring yes was the Ever Normal

Granary. That is the modern American adaptation of the idea Joseph found in Pharaoh's dream back in Memphis, Egypt.

IT IS THE PURPOSE OF CONGRESS, SAID THE law which nails up the framework of the Ever Normal Granary, to regulate interstate and foreign commerce in cotton, wheat, corn, tobacco, and rice to the extent necessary to provide an orderly, adequate, and balanced flow of such commodities . . . through storage of reserve supplies, loans, marketing quotas . . . so that farmers will get fair prices, and consumers will be assured adequate and steady supplies.

Men can spend their days weaving words into magic carpets to carry them from here to there, but unless magic carpets are hooked up to machines that carry the load, they remain no more than fragile fabrics of wishful thinking.

To implement its high purpose for farmers and consumers, therefore, Congress drew the blueprint of a machine to carry the country over the mountain tops and valleys of disorderly, inadequate or unbalanced commerce in farm products.

We will give farmers 4 sets of tools, said Congress, to implement this insurance for their own and consumers' protection. The Nation knows how much wheat it will need in an average year because it has long-time records of domestic consumption and of exports. It knows from experience, too, how much reserve it needs to insure sufficient supplies of wheat even in years of low production. The first set of tools in the national wheat program gives the individual farmer the opportunity to know how much wheat he must seed to provide his share of

the national need. This is his wheat acreage allotment. But if acres yield more than average, farmers may agree among themselves not to sell the amount in excess of the normal need of the country. For this, they have a system of marketing quotas, the program's second set of tools. Also when supplies are so excessive as to glut the market and depress prices so that farmers get inadequate returns for their labor, farmers may use a system of loans. That is the third set of tools. And to guard against weather playing tricks both with farm income and with consumer supplies, we create a system of crop insurance. That is the fourth set of tools.

Farmers may use these measures as a means to improve their incomes on condition they are used to provide normal supplies of farm products for consumers.

NOW, LET'S SEE HOW THIS WORKS WITH wheat.

In order to give farmers plenty of time to plan their seedings, the Secretary of Agriculture early in the summer and not later than July 15, announces how many acres the Nation needs to have planted to wheat. This is the National Wheat Acreage Allotment.

Two main steps are involved in determining the national acreage allotment. First, the average amount of wheat consumed in the United States and sold abroad during the preceding 10 years is determined. If a trend is noted either up or down an allowance is made accordingly. To this figure is added 30 percent—to provide a margin of extra supplies. This total supply is the objective for the next year. However, there is some wheat left over from the preceding marketing year. The amount of this carryover is estimated and subtracted from the total supply needed and the result is the amount of wheat which must be produced to reach the objective.

AS THE SECOND STEP, THE AMOUNT OF wheat the country should produce is converted into acres in order to know how many acres must be seeded to produce this much wheat. To find this out, the total amount of wheat desired is divided by the average yield



MARCH 1, 1940

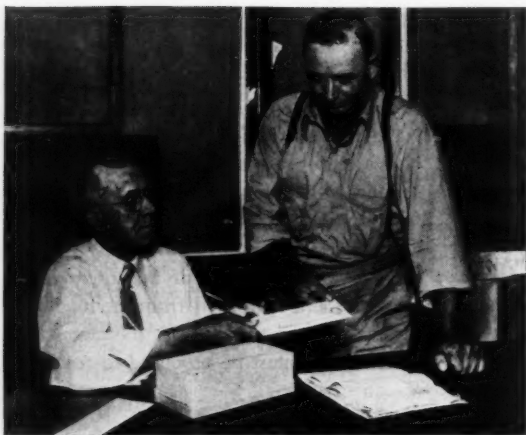
4 of wheat per acre in the United States. The answer is the National Acreage Allotment for wheat; that is, the number of acres that should be planted to wheat during the year to yield enough for food, feed, seed, export, and reserves against unpredictable circumstances.

The National Acreage Allotment then is apportioned to each State and county on the basis of wheat acreage during the past 10 years, with allowances made for abnormal weather conditions, trends and acreage diverted under previous programs. In the counties, committees of farmers break down the allotment still further to determine the acreage allotment for each wheat farmer.

Farmers can plant in accordance with their acreage allotment if they want to. If they don't want to, they don't have to. But farmers who do not join up with their fellows in the program to balance supplies with the current needs are not eligible to receive Soil Conservation Payments or Price Adjustment Payments, or loans on their wheat.

WHEAT PRODUCTION IS NOT ALWAYS THE same from the same number of acres, however. Good weather conditions one year might bring more than the average yield.

HARVESTS are planned before they are planted under the AAA farm program. A National Acreage Allotment, the total number of acres to be planted to wheat, is worked out so that too abundant harvests will not impoverish farmers and too skimpy harvests will not impoverish consumers.



AS a double check on too much wheat one year and not enough another, the AAA farm program provides for loans to farmers who can, if they wish, store part of their surplus crop against a later time when wheat may not be so abundant. This farmer has stored his wheat in the Ever Normal Granary and is now receiving his loan check.

Another year, widespread crop failure might bring an unusually low yield. Like a good general ready to meet emergencies, farmers have measures ready for use when their supply threatens to become a depressing surplus or threatens to fall to an inadequate level. These measures form the main features of the Ever Normal Granary for wheat.

WHEN IT APPEARS THAT WHEAT SUPPLIES available during the next marketing year will exceed normal needs for consumption and export by more than 35 percent, the Secretary of Agriculture is obliged by May 15 to declare the wheat marketing quota provisions in operation and if two-thirds of the farmers voting in a national referendum vote their approval, the measure continues in effect.

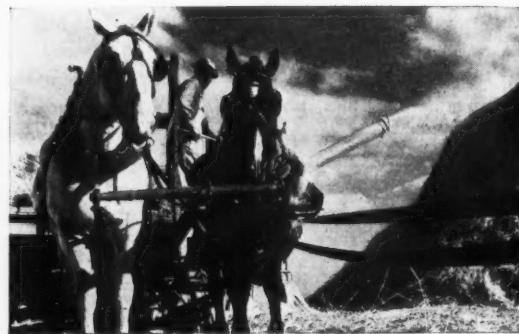
WHEN THE QUOTA IS IN EFFECT, FARMERS may sell their share of the national quota which provides enough wheat to meet all market needs. For every bushel of wheat

farmers market over their quota they must pay a penalty of 15 cents. The extra wheat, however, is not a drug on the farmer's hands. By safely storing the excess wheat, he can get a loan on it from the Commodity Credit Corporation.

If a national emergency should arise, the marketing quota provisions could be suspended.

Wheat loans are the next device used to outwit scarcity and the paradoxical misfortune of too abundant harvests. This double barreled mechanism works this way:

- (1) When the price of wheat on June 15 of any year falls below a certain level, or
- (2) When the crop estimate made by the Department of Agriculture in July indicates that the wheat harvest for the coming year will be greater than the normal amount of wheat needed for food, feed, seed, and export,



AS a triple check on unbalanced production, crop insurance provides protection against bad luck in harvests. Reserves of wheat are stored in warehouses, to be paid out when crops fail. The farmer in this picture collected a load of wheat on his insurance when his crop failed. It was the first such wheat insurance payment made.



then wheat loans must be made available to cooperating farmers by the Commodity Credit Corporation, a loan agency within the Department of Agriculture.

THE PURPOSE OF WHEAT LOANS IS TO STORE excess wheat when it is dragging farm prices down, and to make the wheat available when inadequate supplies are pushing consumer prices too high.

When the farmer borrows money on his wheat, he gives wheat as security against his loan. This wheat is taken off the market. It may be stored in approved commercial warehouses or it may go into sealed bins on the borrower's farm in which case the farmer becomes a custodian for the Federal Government of the wheat he puts up as security.

By the time most of the loans fall due the following spring and summer the new wheat crop is sufficiently advanced so that an estimate of its size can be made with reasonable accuracy. Still another Ever Normal Granary measure offers protection to growers and consumers—the insurance mechanism.

NOBODY YET HAS SET UP A MAIL-ORDER house for wheat. Nor can anyone deliver on order a 2-inch rain out in Kansas or wrap up and mail to anyone a perfect June day. But farmers and consumers can be protected against the hazards of weather, just as they are protected against the hazards of fire.

This is provided for by insurance. Wheat farmers may insure their crops, just as city people insure their houses. They can get policies that cover either a half or three-fourths of the normal yield on their acreage allotments. To handle this insurance business, Congress created the Federal Crop Insurance Corporation. To get insurance, a wheat farmer pays his premiums in wheat or in cash. When he pays in cash, the FCIC takes the cash and buys wheat. The wheat which the FCIC buys and the wheat which farmers pay go into another bin of the Ever Normal Granary. As the growing season progresses, drought, hail, flood and grasshoppers all take their ruinous toll in various sections of the country. When this happens those farmers who have lost their crops for any reason at all, report to the FCIC, just as they would to a company which had insured their house against fire. The FCIC pays off the losses, in wheat or in cash. Thus not only is the individual farmer protected against loss, but the country is insured against a wheat shortage caused by crop failure.

IN BREAD, IN CAKES, IN CEREALS, AND IN other products, Americans consume about 500 million bushels of wheat each year. Each year livestock muzzles up about 100 million



THIS is the sign of safety. A farmer-inspector affixes the seal of the Ever Normal Granary to his neighbor's wheat bin, after making sure that wheat is ready for storage and the bin is weather-proof, rat-proof, and insect-proof. Once the seal is up the farmer becomes one of the keepers of the Nation's wheat reserves. Some of the wheat is stored in commercial warehouses.

bushels of wheat as feed. To renew wheat supplies annually the country needs about 85 million bushels of seed. On the average during the last 10 years about 70 million bushels of wheat have been sold abroad. Add to these 755 million bushels a reserve of 30 percent and our average wheat need totals about 980 million bushels. Thus, our annual wheat budget averages about 980 million bushels.

New Year's Day on the wheat marketing calendar is July 1, for that day is the beginning of the new wheat marketing year. On Wheat New Year's Day, 1939, to balance against the amount of wheat the country normally disposes of, there were in farm bins, in warehouse storage, and in the process of being harvested, some 1,009 million bushels of wheat—enough to balance the budget, with plenty to spare.

WHAT PART DID THE EVER NORMAL GRANARY machinery play in providing this year's abundance and next year's insurance against want?

Well in advance of seeding for the 1939 crop the Secretary of Agriculture announced the National Acreage Allotment for wheat. It was 55 million acres, a large enough acreage to produce what was needed for normal consumption and sales abroad, and for a 30 percent reserve. Seedlings were somewhat higher than the acreage allotment, but the 1939 crop was harvested from about 54 million acres.

The 1939 harvest totaled 755 million bushels. In addition there were 254 million

bushels left over from the year before, providing the Nation with a 1939-40 wheat supply of 1,009 million bushels.

When the abundance of this harvest had been appraised, the loan feature of the Ever Normal Granary began to function. The loan rate this year ranged from 73 to 87 cents a bushel at terminal markets (loan rates on the farm were less than this by an amount roughly equivalent to the cost of hauling wheat to market). The Nation's average loan rate to farmers was 64 cents a bushel.

Under the 1939 loan, 167 million bushels of wheat went into storage, part in bins on the farms inspected and sealed by farmer-inspectors, and the remainder in terminal warehouse storage.

On farm-stored wheat the seal nailed up on the bin by the farmer-inspector reads:

"EVER NORMAL GRANARY

"Sealed Under Authority of the Agricultural Adjustment Act of 1938, as Amended.

"The United States Department of Agriculture certifies that this storage structure for grain has been officially inspected and is hereby sealed pursuant to the provisions of the Agricultural Adjustment Act of 1938, as amended.

"Any person tampering with this seal, as affixed by the official inspector, or breaking or entering this structure, or who in any manner interferes with the grain stored herein, unless authorized to do so, shall be subject to the provisions of the United States Criminal Code. H. A. WALLACE, *Secretary of Agriculture of the United States.*"

After the seal is put up, the farmer takes up his duties as one of the custodians of the Nation's reserve supplies for wheat on behalf of the Nation's consumers.

Besides the wheat on the market, and the 167 million bushels of wheat in storage under the Ever Normal Granary seal, there are 12 million more bushels of wheat in the Federal Crop Insurance Corporation reserves to insure individual farmers against loss on their 1940 crop. These are reserves accumulated from the payment of premiums on the wheat sown this fall. By next March premiums will have been paid on the spring sown wheat and the total insurance reserves should amount to about 20 million bushels.

Thus 3 of the mechanisms in the Ever Normal Granary are working: The national acreage allotment, the loans on sealed stored wheat, and crop insurance—each contributing to the Nation's abundance of wheat so that today our wheat balance reads:

Our average need—980 million bushels.
Our 1939-40 supply—1,009 million bushels.



When You Buy Stockings

Until stockings are labeled with simple quality grades, stretching dollars requires knowing many facts about stocking construction

QUEEN ELIZABETH, turning her attention from affairs of state to affairs of fashion, found one day that the knitters of Nottingham were on the palace doorsteps. They were there to protest a lamentable change in the styles of the period.

Skirts being voluminous and long, practical-minded ladies had taken to wearing anklets instead of stockings. Not only did the knitters consider this style change an immodest one; they believed it was injuring the business of Nottingham. The knitters appealed to the Queen to put an end to the stockingless fad.

Touched by their appeal, the Queen issued a decree. Henceforth, she ruled, it would be an offense against the Crown not to wear stockings on Sundays and holy days.

Today, royal decrees are not necessary to persuade consumers that stockings are a desirable article of clothing on weekdays as well as weekends. Indeed, they have become an essential, purchased by women of low and

high incomes, on farms and in cities, by women who work at home and those who work in factories.

WHEN THE BUREAU OF HOME ECONOMICS turned its searchlight on expenditures by the wives in non-relief families in 1935-1936, it found how large the stocking bill looms in the clothing budget. Among such women living in small cities through the North Central and Western States, for instance, expenditures for stockings accounted for 6 to 13 percent of the money spent for clothes.

Wives in families with incomes under \$500 spent \$27 for clothes, and the \$3 of this which went for stockings bought 4 pairs. Those in \$1,000 to \$1,500 income families spent \$47 for clothes, and the \$6 spent on stockings purchased 8 pairs. At the top of the scale, where families had incomes of \$5,000 or more, the wives expended \$211 on clothes for themselves, using \$13 of this to buy 13 pairs of stockings.

CONGRESS has ordered the Bureau of Home Economics to investigate cotton hosiery as a possible outlet for more American cotton. Already technical experts in the Bureau have designed 50 new constructions for cotton stockings. First step in making such stockings is laying the design out on paper.

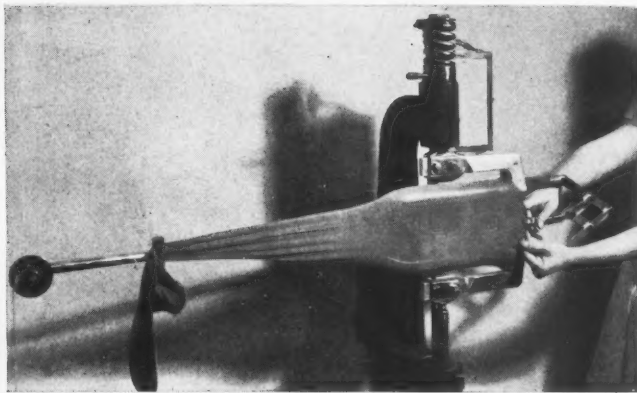
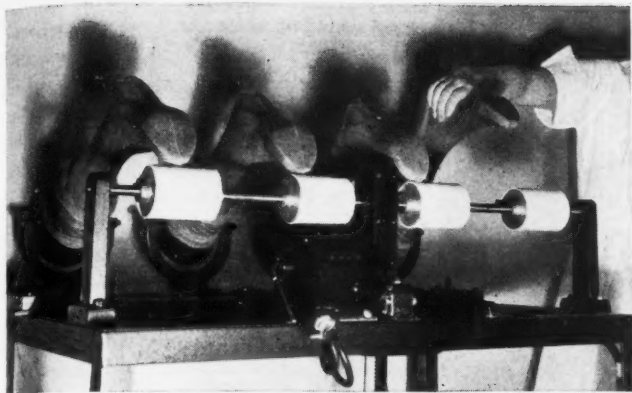
Not fashion alone, but the nature of the fiber has made silk the favored fiber for women's hose. Some 80 out of every 100 pairs of women's stockings made in American factories are the product of the Japanese silkworm. Relatively few cotton stockings for women are sold, partly because few types now on the market measure up to silk stockings in elasticity, durability, and appearance. Should these shortcomings be overcome, a great demand for cotton hose might develop. According to one estimate, if cotton hose of comparable weight were used to replace all women's full-fashioned, all-silk hosiery, nearly 43 million pounds of lint cotton would be required. Roughly about one-half of this amount would be needed in part-silk hose, making a possible total demand for 64 million pounds—a sizeable dent in the great surpluses of cotton now burdening growers and depressing prices.

Last year Congress directed the Bureau of Home Economics to investigate the possibilities of hosiery as an outlet for more American cotton. Already the Bureau has devised over 50 new constructions for cotton hosiery, both plain knits and mesh designs. The stockings are full-fashioned, and are made in various gauges and weights. New methods for improving elastic properties and snag resistance are being developed. Through tests, researchers in the Bureau hope to be able to select the best designs and styles, and then to interest manufacturers in making such stockings available on the market.

UNTIL QUALITY STANDARDS ARE AVAILABLE and labels give real information, the consumer who wants to buy wisely must transform herself into an encyclopedia to judge the durability of a stocking.

These facts are important: the thread weight of the yarn; the gauge of the stocking; size and length of the hosiery; degree of twist of the yarn; elasticity of the yarn; type of welt, bursting strength of the fabric, and whether the stocking is circular knit or

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MILES of wear on toe and heel can be duplicated in a few hours by the machine on the left. Measuring the elasticity or "stretch" of a stocking (right) is another test which the Bureau of Home Economics makes in its laboratories on cotton hosiery.

full-fashioned. Some of these things she can see for herself, others she must look for on stocking labels.*

Thread weight in the case of silk stockings, is the first thing to observe. By the weight or size of the silk yarn is meant the number of threads twisted together to form the silk yarn. If 2 threads are twisted together you have a 2-thread yarn; 4 threads twisted together means a 4-thread yarn; and so on.

Weight of the yarn affects durability and appearance, or sheerness, of the silk stocking. The lower the thread number the more sheer and delicate the stocking. The higher the thread number, the heavier the silk yarn.

Gauge in the stocking means the number of needles in each $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch of the needle bar used to knit the stocking. Gauge indicates the fineness of the knitting, and is frequently considered one measure of the elasticity and strength of the stocking. In general, the higher the gauge number, the more

closely knit is the stocking. It is better to buy stockings that have the gauge number and the number of threads making up the yarn plainly stamped on the label or on the stocking itself.

Even this, however, may sometimes deceive the consumer. Some manufacturers to meet a retail price range—in the absence of any standards—may stamp the gauge number of the *knitting machine* on the label, but fail to tell the consumer that all of the needles of the machine were not used during the actual knitting process.

Gauge by itself is no absolute measure of a stocking's durability. Other things must also be considered; particularly the thread weight of the hosiery. As a rule, sheer stockings have a high gauge number and a low thread weight. High gauge and high twist stockings have more elasticity, but if they are made with a 1- or 2-thread yarn, they are not intended for everyday wear.

Sheer stockings sold at low prices may mean the manufacturer has used a low gauge machine to knit the fine yarns, skimping on the amount of yarn in the stocking and the amount of twist in the yarn.

BETTER WEARING STOCKINGS—SERVICE AND semi-service weights—have a higher thread weight than sheer hose and a slightly lower gauge.

With 2 pairs of stockings of the same thread weight, the one with the higher gauge will obviously be the better buy for serviceability.

If you want sheer (chiffon) hose—for evening and dinner wear—ask for a 2- or 3-thread stocking, 45 gauge and up. Gauge of such hosiery may even go as high as 60. Stockings with lower than 45 gauge cannot be expected to outlast heavy wearings.

When buying everyday hosiery for street, office, or school wear, choose a 4- to 6-thread stocking with a 42 to 45 gauge count for the 4-thread, ranging down to a 39 gauge for the 6-thread stocking. Poorer quality stockings in these thread weights may have a lower gauge. This means a sleazy product that will not long resist strain or hard wear.

For service-weight hose—used for hiking, walking, street or school wear—buy those of 6- to 9-thread yarns. The gauge should average around 39 to 42.

WHAT HOLDS FOR SILK STOCKINGS HOLDS only in part for cotton and rayon hosiery. They are knit in the same gauge, but there is no such thing as "thread weight" in rayon hose, and in cotton "thread weight" has an entirely different meaning.

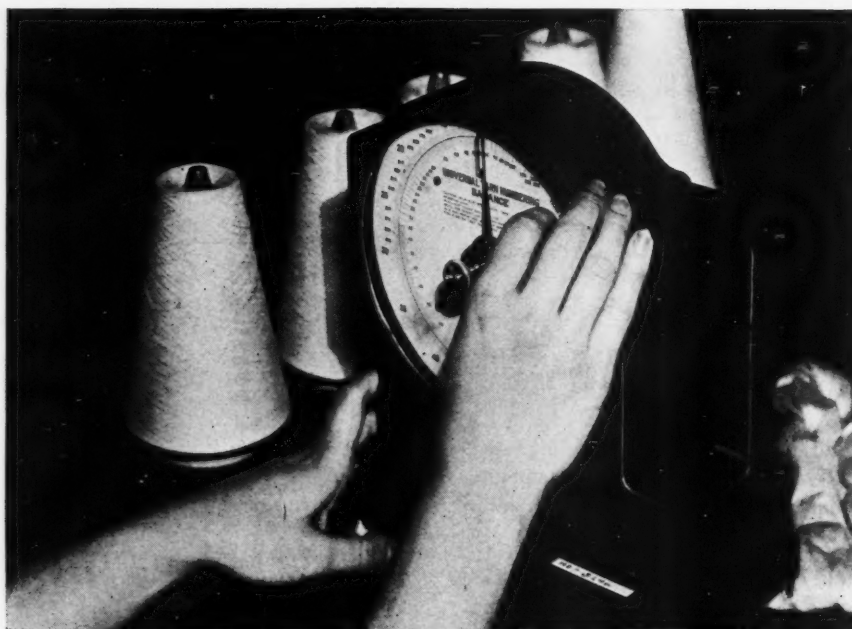
Measuring the "weight" of cotton is a complicated business. Consumers would have to lie awake nights to understand the meaning of present "weights" as applied to the yarns. So far no one has come forward with simple, understandable standard for expressing cotton weights—standards which, if put on the label, would inform the consumer, rather than confuse her.

Lisle hose are made with the finest cotton yarns. They are more sheer than ordinary cotton stockings, and cost more. To make lisle stockings, the yarn may be gassed to remove short ends; is highly twisted, and is sometimes mercerized to give luster. With this type of stocking the Bureau of Home Economics hopes to get better wearing quality by using yarns from long staple cotton, specially treated to increase elasticity.

Cotton hose is made in both plain knits and mesh designs. Some of these are made with a special stitch to prevent runs. This information again is something to look for

*"Hosiery for Women—A Buying Guide," published by the Bureau of Home Economics, tells in picture form the points to look for in buying stockings. It costs 10 cents and can be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C.





THIS machine is no handy little gadget for consumers to take to market with them, but experts use it to "weigh" a cotton yarn. Generally, the heavier the cotton or silk yarn, the more durable and heavy will be the stocking. Consumers should look for labels that tell what the weight of the yarn is in a stocking.

on the label. In any case, all novelty knits should have adequate foot reinforcements.

Heavier cotton stockings wear extremely well, find most favor for hiking, playing, or gardening, or work about the house.

Rayon may make a durable hose. Points in its favor are its low cost, and the fact that it is usually ringless. So far no method has been devised to give rayon the elasticity of silk, or to make rayon hosiery hold its shape as well as silk.

HERE ARE OTHER POINTS TO WATCH FOR IN

hosiery of all 3 yarns. Look for smooth, well-finished seams, preferably stitched with a sturdy but fine cotton yarn. Heels, toes, and soles should be reinforced to increase wear. Some women prefer a cotton welt (top) on silk service weight hosiery, since it is less susceptible to runs and wears better. It is bulky, however. Reinforcements at the welt and on the foot may be at a sacrifice of appearance, but they also fortify the weak spots against too rapid wear.

Examine the hosiery closely for "rings," oil spots, and imperfections in the weaving.

Re-dyed stockings sometimes lose durability, and should be labeled as "re-dyed" and sold at sale prices. Irregulars and seconds should also be labeled as such. Often retailers will advertise these products as "bargains," without telling the consumer that actually the price has been cut because the hose have defects. That is all the more reason for a fine-comb inspection of stockings before you complete the purchase.

TWIST OF THE YARN, TECHNICIANS AT THE National Bureau of Standards have found, has a lot to do with the snag-resistance—particularly in yarns of silk or cotton—of the stocking. A highly twisted yarn is thought to be a help in diminishing the snag mortality of stockings, but it is possible to twist a yarn to the point where more harm than good is accomplished. For consumers, the solution would be to set up standards of snag resistance for hosiery. It is here that consumer persistence in asking for such standards might get results from cooperating manufacturers. Research leading to such standards would promote development.

Elasticity of the yarn is something else again. Cotton and rayon are not as elastic as silk, but studies show that elasticity of cotton can be increased by special treatment. A number of synthetic newcomers to the field promise to equal silk in resilient properties. It is a simple matter of stretch to test the elasticity of a new silk stocking. You should be able to stretch the welt to 12 inches, the ankle of the stocking to about 7 inches, the foot (in the width) to 6 inches, and the width of the calf to 10 inches. In every case the stocking should return to within a quarter-inch of its original size. If it doesn't, then you would be wise not to buy it. When you stretch the stocking, notice the "ribs" running up and down. These should be equally spaced in well-made hosiery.

"FULL-FASHIONED" TO SOME WOMEN IS A hallmark of stocking quality. Actually, the term may be deceiving unless you know what a full-fashioned stocking looks like. The way to tell a full-fashioned stocking is this: Look at the back of the stocking and find the small fashion marks on either side of the seam half way down the leg. Then examine closely the row of stitches on the outside of these fashion marks. Do they meet the marks at an angle, or are they parallel to the marks? If they are at an angle, then the stocking is full-fashioned. If the stitches are parallel to the fashion marks and seam, then the stocking is circular knit. In that case, the

If you wear this size shoe . . .

ask for this size stocking

4	8½
4½	8½
5	9
5½	9
6	9½
6½	9½
7	10
7½	10
8	10½
8½	10½

These sizes, recommended by hosiery manufacturers, and reported in Montana Experiment Station Bulletin 299, titled "Selection, Care and Wearing Qualities of Women's Silk Hosiery," are a general guide only. For correct fitting, width as well as length of the foot must be considered.

fashion marks are put there merely to deceive the eye.

A circular knit stocking does not require a seam, one may be "planted" simply to imitate full-fashioned knits. Putting mock fashion marks and mock seams in circular knit stockings is a common practice. Unless the label tells you plainly these are put in only for appearance, then you have a right to consider the hosiery suspect.

Full-fashioned stockings are not only fashioned in the leg portion, but also in the foot, heel, and toe. If the stocking has a full seam, running under the heel and foot, chances again are that it is full-fashioned.

Circular knit stockings are cheaper to make, may be just as durable as full-fashioned hose. By reducing the size of the stitches, they can be shaped to fit but there is no guarantee against their becoming baggy after laundering. Many women can wear the circular knit hose just as well as the full-fashioned kind, and can accomplish substantial savings to boot. About one out of every three stockings sold in 1937 was circular knit.

RUNS ARE THE WATERLOO OF ALL STOCKINGS, particularly those of silk, lisle, and rayon. The Federal Trade Commission has cracked down again and again on manufacturers falsely advertising "run-proof" hosiery. A stitch has been patented that is run resistant, and stockings with this are sold. They are more expensive than ordinary stockings and so far no method has been devised of giving the hose an appearance of sheerness. These stockings will snag but will not run.

Some silk hosiery is "treated" to make it resistant to runs and water. Ninety-nine percent of these finishes come out in the wash. None of them makes the stocking run-proof, although some increase its snag resistance and elasticity. Run-stoppers, applied immediately, are a temporary help in checking a run already started. Home treatments to restore the snag resistant "finish" to stockings are also partially successful. The National Bureau of Standards tested a number of these home finishes a few years ago and made this conclusion: "Some of the finishes decreased the distensibility, elasticity, and resistance to failure of the stockings when repeatedly distended. Others . . . had the opposite effect and . . . may be considered beneficial . . ." Of the finishes containing aluminum soap, the report said this: "The treatment will not prevent runs. It will make the fabric water-repellent and therefore, resistant to spotting. The tests made at the Bureau indicate that it will improve the distensibility and elasticity of some silk stockings."

WISER INSURANCE AGAINST RUNS OR SNAGS is not to buy stockings that are loosely knit, fuzzy, or badly constructed. And don't wear shoes with broken down interiors, holes in the lining, or those that are bad fits. More than any other single thing, these failings in shoes raise havoc in wear and tear on the foot of the stocking.

Size of your hose generally should be a half inch longer than your foot. Remember that hose size simply means the length of the foot in inches. On page 8 we give a table of shoe sizes correlated to the size of the stocking, suggested by hosiery manufacturers, according to the Montana Experiment Station.

IF YOUR HOSE WEAR OUT AT THE HEEL OR the toe in short order, it probably means you are buying a size too small or too large. Women with narrow feet should select a size slightly smaller than would be selected by women with feet of average width. This permits the stocking to adjust itself to the foot, and there is no excess fabric to rub against the shoe.

Standard length of stockings, as defined

in a Commercial Standard issued by the National Bureau of Standards, is 30 inches. Of course, you can get them in other lengths. Stockings that are too long or too short usually don't last as long as those that fit correctly.

When you put on or take off a stocking, be careful of sharp fingernails, jewelry, calloused skin. A good idea is to roll the stocking before putting it on, then slip it over the foot and gently draw it over the calf. This will avoid accidental snags or runs.

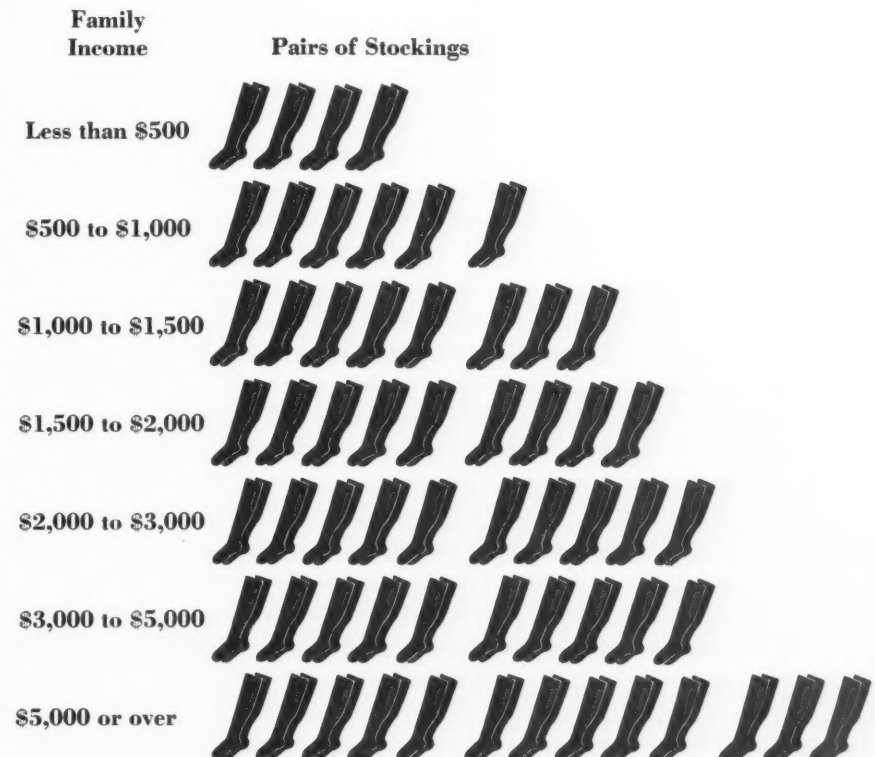
Wash hosiery as soon as possible after each time they are worn. Use a mild soap and lukewarm, soft water. Silk and rayon stockings particularly should be handled with care.

Press or squeeze out the soap suds and rinsing water—never rub or scrub hosiery. Then roll the stockings in a soft towel to absorb the moisture, and hang them over a line to dry, rather than fastening them with clothespins. Don't hang the hose in the hot sun or near a hot radiator. The best place is a warm room with circulating air.

Last, never iron hosiery. Ironing not only causes them to lose shape; it can ruin delicate silk and rayon fibers.

THEY BOUGHT THESE PAIRS

Wives in non-relief families in small cities in the North Central and West purchased these pairs of stockings in the year 1935-1936:



10 Simple as A B C—

How quality grading of canned fruits and vegetables grew as a Government service and what yardsticks it provides for consumers

"WHEN I USE A WORD," Humpty Dumpty said, in a rather scornful tone, "it means just what I choose it to mean—neither more nor less."

"The question is," said Alice, "whether you *can* make words mean so many different things."

"Ah," smiled Humpty Dumpty, "you should buy a can of lima beans."

"Lima beans? My goodness, I was supposed to buy a can of lima beans. But where can I buy lima beans on this side of the Looking Glass?"

"Over there," Humpty Dumpty pointed, indicating a great blaze of neon lights.

"Thank you," Alice said, and she walked over to the store, nodding to the White Queen who was emerging with a market basket.

The store was as dazzling inside as it was out. There were black and white enameled panels everywhere, and not a speck of dust. Foods glowed under colored lights that brought out their most appetizing tints. Just waiting for a clerk, Alice became ravenously hungry.

Finally the clerk appeared.

"I want a can of lima beans," Alice said to the clerk.

"Yes, Madam," the clerk responded. "A can of select lima beans?"

"Select lima beans sounds fine," Alice nodded. "There are no lima beans choicer than select, are there?"

"Well," said the clerk, "we have superb lima beans."

"Pardon me," Alice stammered apologetically. "Superb lima beans would naturally be better than select lima beans. If I weren't so serious-minded I would say superb will suit me superbly. Since they are your best lima beans, give me some of them."

The clerk cut her off as if he were short of temper. Alice, his manner indicated, was

acting stupidly. "Superb aren't necessarily our best lima beans at all. Of course we have select and superb lima beans, but then we have superior lima beans, and supreme lima beans, too."

"Oh, dear me," Alice cried, "I just can't get this straight. Superb, select, supreme, superior. They all seem to me like they must be the very best."

"Very best," the clerk interrupted. "We have them, too."

Alice suddenly reached into her purse for the piece of cake she always carried with her. Nibbling on it, she immediately became very small, small enough to disappear through a crack in the floor. And without any delay, that was what she did. It was all too confusing.

CONSUMERS, NO LESS THAN ALICE, ARE

bewildered by words whose meanings don't stay nailed down, particularly when the words are used on the labels of foods you can't see because they're wrapped up in a can.

But it was farmers, dealers, and bankers—not consumers—who were the first to run up banners in favor of words with meaning and against words without meaning.

When farmers sell their products, and dealers buy them, and bankers lend money on them (transactions which occur and have been occurring thousands of times each day for a long time), there are three questions which must be answered:

What's the price?

What's the quantity?

What's the quality?

Describing price is simple. That's done in dollars and cents. But the reason it is simple is because the Federal Government has defined the measurements and the terms which apply to prices in a national law; one hundred cents make one dollar.

Describing quantity is also relatively simple. State laws, and in some cases Federal laws, define the pounds, quarts, and bushels which are measures of quantity.

But a quarter of a century ago there were no generally accepted measures of quality. The rule of Humpty Dumpty prevailed on



THE Cheshire Cat is about to dissolve into a grin as the grocer tries to explain the meaning of the adjectives on canned food labels to Alice. Consumers, like Alice, must find their way around in a wilderness of adjectives when cans don't show a simple grade standard on the label.



the farms and in the produce markets. It was the destiny of Humpty Dumpty to end his life as an omelet, but there never was an omelet as thoroughly scrambled as the meanings of the words which were used to describe quality.

FARMERS, DEALERS, HANDLERS, ALL HAD their own way of measuring quality, and their own words to describe it. A word that might mean high grade in one section of the country might mean run of the field somewhere else. That made it hard to carry on business by wire, by telephone, or by letter—as a good deal of business in farm products must be carried on. It made it difficult for bankers to lend money on farm products stored in warehouses. Even when business was transacted face to face between farmers and dealers, the dealer could look at a load of something and say it was pretty low grade. The farmer might protest that it wasn't low grade at all. Unless there is an established standard to refer to, however, an argument like that can go on forever. It's a case of you saying no and me saying yes.

This situation couldn't continue, because it's just as impractical to buy and sell produce without accurate quality measurements as it is to buy without accurate measurements of quantity. Good quality potatoes sell for more than low quality potatoes just as two pounds of something cost more than one pound of something.

IN URGENT NEED OF STANDARD MEASUREMENTS for quality, farmers, dealers, and bankers finally turned to the Federal Government and asked for help.

Not everyone asked the Federal Government to step in, however. Some people, while admitting that there was a problem, scoffed at any attempt to set up standards of quality for fruits and vegetables and other farm products.

Nature, they said, never made two of anything from the same mould. Every apple,

every potato, every pea in a pod is different from every other apple, every other potato, and every other pea. It's ridiculous, they remarked scornfully, to attempt to work out yardsticks of quality for fruits and vegetables.

Maybe, Congress said, and maybe not. But the problem is so pressing it's worth working at.

YEAR 1 IN THE HISTORY OF FEDERAL STANDARDS of quality is 1902. In that year Congress appropriated money to the Department of Agriculture "to investigate the varieties of wheat . . . in order to standardize the naming of varieties . . . as an assistance in commercial grading." In 1906 standards history inched up a little when Congress authorized the Department to carry on special investigations in the grading of grain.

Apples are starred in the history of Federal standards for food because they are the subject of the first Federal law which defines a food standard. In a law passed in 1912 Congress said that standard grade apples, minimum size $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches (or 2 inches or $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches) are apples packed in a barrel for shipment or sale in interstate commerce which are $2\frac{1}{2}$ (or 2 or $2\frac{1}{4}$) inches in diameter, and are of one variety, and are also well-grown specimens, handpicked, of good color for the variety, normal shape, practically free from insect and fungus injury . . . The use of the apple standard was not made compulsory, however.

Standards took a definite spurt in the next year, 1913, when Congress moved along and passed a law authorizing the Department of Agriculture to grapple seriously with the problem of defining standards for all farm products by broadening its research in quality differences.

This scientific spadework brought an immediate legislative harvest in 1914, with the passage of the Cotton Futures Act which made the use of cotton grades (baled cotton, not cotton goods) mandatory under certain circumstances.

Two years later cotton, wool, grains, tobacco, and flaxseed won mandatory grades under somewhat similar conditions in the United States Warehouse Act which was approved on August 11, 1916.

THEN IN 1915 A TELEGRAPHER IN THE Department of Agriculture tapped a telegraph key to inaugurate the Federal telegraphic market news service, which reports to dealers and farmers on the prices and supplies of farm products in the markets throughout the country.

Immediately the men who ran the service

came up with a bang against the fact that the prices they reported had no meaning unless they were based upon products of comparable quality. That required standards of comparison, or in the more usual phrase, standards of quality.

Additional experts were put to work on the formulation of grades that could be used and understood throughout the country.

War in 1917 gave a further impetus to the use of standards. The United States Food Administration, charged with feeding a nation at war, gave the movement a shove by requiring that all trading in potatoes be conducted on the basis of grades.

By the time the World War was over the use of Federal grades throughout the country was well advanced. In 1922 grading by Federal inspectors at farm shipping points was established, and thereafter the use of grades for farm products grew rapidly. Today about 90 percent of all commercially distributed farm products are sold by either Federal or State grades.

These grades, however, from wheat to lespedeza (a kind of hay), are not of much use to consumers. Fruits and vegetables change in quality on their way to retail markets. Grades for most fruits and vegetables are important to consumers, but only because they make marketing more efficient and thus reduce costs and prices. They are not guides for the consumer in the market place.

CAN OPENERS SYMBOLIZE THE NEXT IMPORTANT standards development. By the time the can opener became the one gadget every family absolutely required to set up house-keeping, farmers discovered that an important part of their annual product was going to consumers after it had been detoured through a cannery. Canneries and other processors of fresh fruits and vegetables first of all needed special arrangements for the grading of the produce they used. These special arrangements came quickly, but then the dealers who traded in canned and dried fruits and vegetables began to demand Federally defined standards for these products just as dealers in fresh fruits and vegetables had asked for standards years before. The legal authority for Government grading of fresh fruits and vegetables, however, did not extend to canned and dried fruits and vegetables. A new law was needed.

Authorization for the Department of Agriculture to move over into the region where it could establish grades for canned and dried foods came in July 1931.

Now there are many notable differences between canned fruits and vegetables and fresh fruits and vegetables, but for consum-



PRICE has its standard measurement. It is expressed in dollars and cents. Federal and State laws provide for standard measurements of quantity. They are pounds and ounces, bushels and quarts. And recently, Uncle Sam, at the request of farmers and dealers, has worked out standard measurements for quality, too. For canned, dried, and frozen fruits and vegetables, these measurements are A-B-C grades.

ers a major difference is that once a fruit or vegetable is put into a can it stays there until it is poured out in some consumer's kitchen. For the most part, too, the quality of canned fruits or vegetables undergoes comparatively little change during the time these products hibernate in cans.

Just as it established grades for fresh fruits and vegetables, the Department of Agriculture went to work under its new authorization and defined grades for canned and dried fruits and vegetables. A-B-C grades they are called, and they have been worked out for some 33 products.

THE VIRTUE OF THESE GRADES IS NOT ONLY that they can serve both dealers and consumers, but also that they are so simple that the use of them by consumers requires no technical knowledge at all.

When a can of food is judged to be Grade A that means the fruits or vegetables in the can are about the finest obtainable, and that they have been carefully selected for size, color, and maturity.

Grade B fruits and vegetables have also been selected for color, size, and maturity, but with not such a sharp eye to perfection. While not the finest fruits and vegetables obtainable, they are nevertheless fruits and vegetables that are distinctly above average.

Grade C fruits and vegetables are good, wholesome, nutritious foods which may lack eye appeal. Just as nutritious as the top grades, they may not be quite as succulent. But they have their own advantage since they should sell at lower prices than the top grades.

The use of these grades is wholly voluntary. The grading service is maintained by the Department of Agriculture for whoever wants to use it, but no one is required to use it. Jobbers, bankers, and institutional buyers do use it extensively.

However, there are other standards whose use is not voluntary. They are standards of minimum quality and identity.

THE FIRST STANDARD OF IDENTITY FOR FOOD dates back to 1923, a year which deserves encirclement on every consumer's calendar. In that year Congress, with butter producers urging it on, passed a law which set up a compulsory standard of identity for butter. This law declares that all butter entering interstate commerce must be "made exclusively from milk or cream, or both, with or without common salt, and with or without additional coloring matter, and containing not less than 80 per centum by weight of milk fat."

Despite the fact that producers furnished the pressure which put the butter law on the statute books, consumers benefited from the law immediately and directly. While producers got protection from competitors who otherwise might have sold butter below this legal standard, consumers got the assurance that the butter they bought would meet certain minimum requirements.

Because the standard in this law carries all the way through to consumers, it is sometimes called a consumer standard.

If butter producers and dealers and consumers all find a compulsory legal standard for butter to their advantage, why, some people asked themselves, wouldn't compulsory standards for other foods be just as satisfactory?

This question germinated, and eventually sprouted in the shape of a law called the McNary-Mapes Amendment to the Food and Drug Act. This law became effective on July 8, 1931, 7 days after the Department of Agriculture received the go-ahead signal on the grading of canned and dried fruits and vegetables.

This law said: "The Secretary of Agriculture is authorized to determine, establish, and promulgate, from time to time, a reasonable standard of quality, condition, and/or fill of container as will in his judgment promote honesty and fair dealing in the interest of the consumer . . ."

Once a minimum standard of quality and fill (that's how near to the top a can should be filled) was established under this law, all foods that failed to come up to this standard had to be labeled to that effect in language and in type prescribed by the Department of Agriculture.

Starred in this law is the clause, "to promote honesty and fair dealing in the interest of the consumer . . ." Standards up until that time came about as a result of producer and trade demand to meet producer and trade needs. Here for the first time the Federal Government faced around the other way and provided for standards to meet a consumer need. One explanation why this happened is perhaps because consumers began to emulate producers and dealers and to make requests in their own behalf.

CLIMAX TO DATE IN THIS HISTORY OF GRADES and standards was, of course, the passage of the Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act of 1938.

Consumers got full-fledged recognition again in this law when Congress said the Secretary of Agriculture could, "to promote honesty and fair dealing in the interest of consumers," promulgate regulations to establish:

1. A reasonable definition and standard of identity for any food,
2. A reasonable standard of quality, and/or
3. Reasonable standards of fill of containers.

In addition this law gives the Department of Agriculture the power to require labels to show what is in a food when no definition and standard of identity have been established for it.

Right now the Department of Agriculture is hard at work holding hearings, at which consumers are urged to be present, where these standards and definitions are being worked out for a long list of foods.

Under the present law when a food fails to meet the standard of identity fixed for it, it may not be labeled as such a food. When a food falls below the minimum standard of quality set for it, the label must show that the food is inferior.

It's important, however, to bear in mind the difference between a food which falls below the minimum standard of quality set for it, and a food which is illegal because it is unwholesome. A food may fail to come up to the minimum standard of quality and still be wholesome food. Since it is wholesome it may be sold as substandard but good food. Food that is so inferior in quality that it is unwholesome may not be sold at all.

THESE ARE THE TWO BOTTOM RUNGS ON the ladder of quality. Consumers who go shopping behind the plate glass of grocery stores know, however, that while minimum standards of quality and guarantees of wholesomeness are essential, they are not enough.

Like Alice, consumers have the problem

of coping with adjectives describing the quality of foods which rate above the minimum standard of quality.

Dealers, producers, and canners long ago learned that it was impossible to buy intelligently without quality measurements, that is, without recognizable grade standards. Today, by far the greatest part of their business is conducted on the basis of grades.

Headquarters in Washington for promulgation of A-B-C grades is the Agricultural Marketing Service of the Department of Agriculture. In this agency men thoroughly familiar with the character and complexion of the canning industry as well as of fruits and vegetables have the job of working up strictly defined, meaningful, useful A-B-C grade designations for canned, frozen, and dried fruits and vegetables.

THESE GRADE DEFINITIONS ARE NOT SUCKED out of an expert's thumb. Working up the grades leads the men who make the definitions first to the botanists who know the fruit or vegetable scientifically. Then the advice of farmers is sought to determine what they think. Dealers get their opinions on record. Packers are urged to describe what they think is feasible. And in recent years the preferences and prejudices of consumers find expression in grades too. Finally after consultation with all the persons and interests involved a grade is worked out. When this is done it is promulgated usually as a tentative grade with the recommendation that it be used and that its shortcomings, if any, be noted so that they may be corrected.

After a grade has been thoroughly tested and revised, it is then promulgated again as a permissive grade in the case of dried and canned fruits and vegetables. This means that the grade definition itself is official, but that it may be used or not as dealers and packers and canners see fit.

WHEN CANNERS OR PACKERS OR DEALERS want to label their products with A-B-C grade designations, they can do one of two things.

First of all, they may grade the product themselves, and simply pass this information on to consumers by printing the grade on the labels of their products. Since the labels must be printed anyway dealers who take this shortcut can give consumers grade label designations at no cost to themselves.

If a canner does not know the grade of the product he is selling, then he can ask the Agricultural Marketing Service to grade it for him. He may apply for the grading service to the Agricultural Marketing Office in any one of 44 cities scattered throughout

the country. If this is inconvenient there is more than likely a sampler in his town licensed by the Department of Agriculture but not a Government employee, with whom he can file his application.

Samples of the goods to be graded are selected in such a way and in such quantity that they will be typical of the entire lot of goods being graded. These samples are sent to one of the 18 offices maintained throughout the country where grading of canned fruits and vegetables is actually performed. As soon as the quality of the product is determined from the samples a certificate setting forth the grade is given to whoever requested the grading service.

That this certificate is a reliable indication of quality is witnessed by the fact that it is accepted by the courts as prima facie evidence of the quality of the goods.

FOR THIS GRADING SERVICE A FEE IS CHARGED. However, when dealers in wholesale quantities have canned goods graded the charge per can is microscopically small, something around 1-100th of a cent per can.

If there is any question about the grade of a lot of goods, an appeal may be made and the goods will be regraded by experts whose job it is to handle appeals.

There are no statistics on the quantity of canned and dried fruits and vegetables which are now sold at retail with A-B-C grade

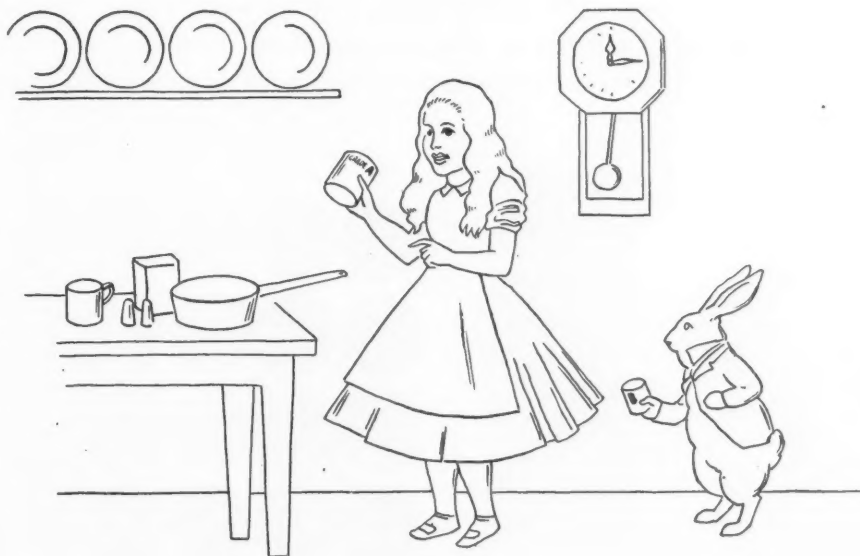
designations on their label, but it runs up into millions of cans. They are sold in stores where consumers have asked for them. Most consumer cooperatives sell canned goods with grade labels. One national chain organization offers its customers A-B-C labels as a guide in marketing.

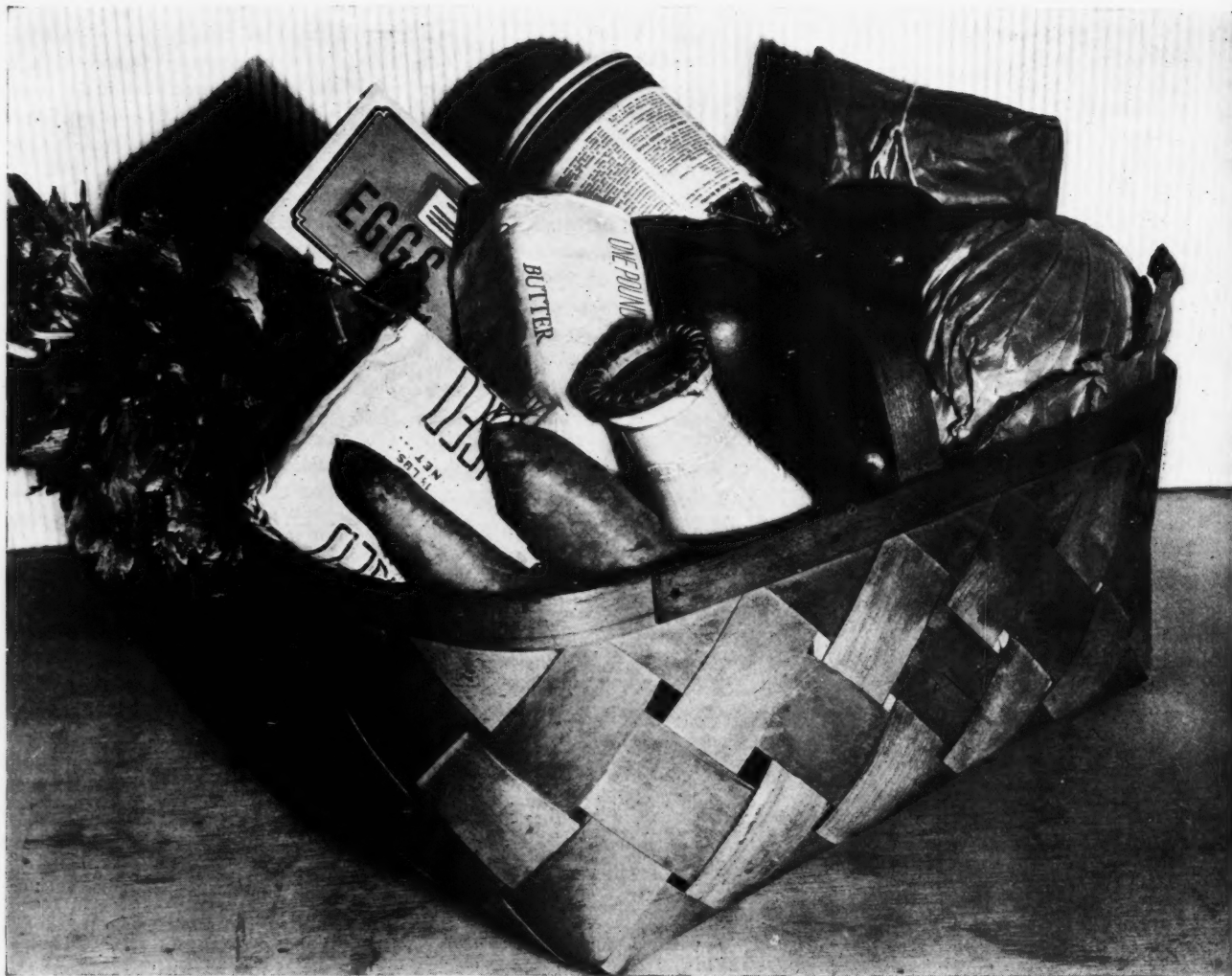
Dealers and canners, of course, demanded this service originally for their own use. But consumers, awake to their own need for grades, have now begun to ask that packers and dealers pass along this useful information to them.

In response to requests by consumers, the Agricultural Marketing Service recently revised the schedule of fees charged for the grading of canned fruits and vegetables so that consumers could use the service too. Formerly the minimum charge for grading was \$1. Under the new schedule consumers may submit one can of food and get it graded for as little as 35 cents.

The service is not much use to consumers who buy a can of something at a time. It can be very useful, however, to consumers in buying clubs or in cooperatives who pool their purchases and buy in lots of several cases. In such instances consumers may take a can of the food they propose buying, send it to the Agricultural Marketing Service office for grading, and thus make sure that they are buying the quality they think they are buying.

THE White Rabbit tells Alice that budgets balance best if you are not absent-minded when you go to shop. Find out the price, he advises. Find out the quantity (by reading the label). Then find out the quality by insisting on A-B-C grade labels. Without accurate quality measurements (A-B-C grades) it is impossible to compare prices at the grocery store. Grade labels help you to get the quality of food you want, and to compare the cost of different cans.





HOW FARMERS SHARE IN CONSUMERS' FOOD DOLLARS

Black dimes represent the amount out of each dollar spent for 53 foods which went to the farmers who produced the raw materials for those foods. White dimes represent the amount that went to processors and distributors.

1925-1929



1933

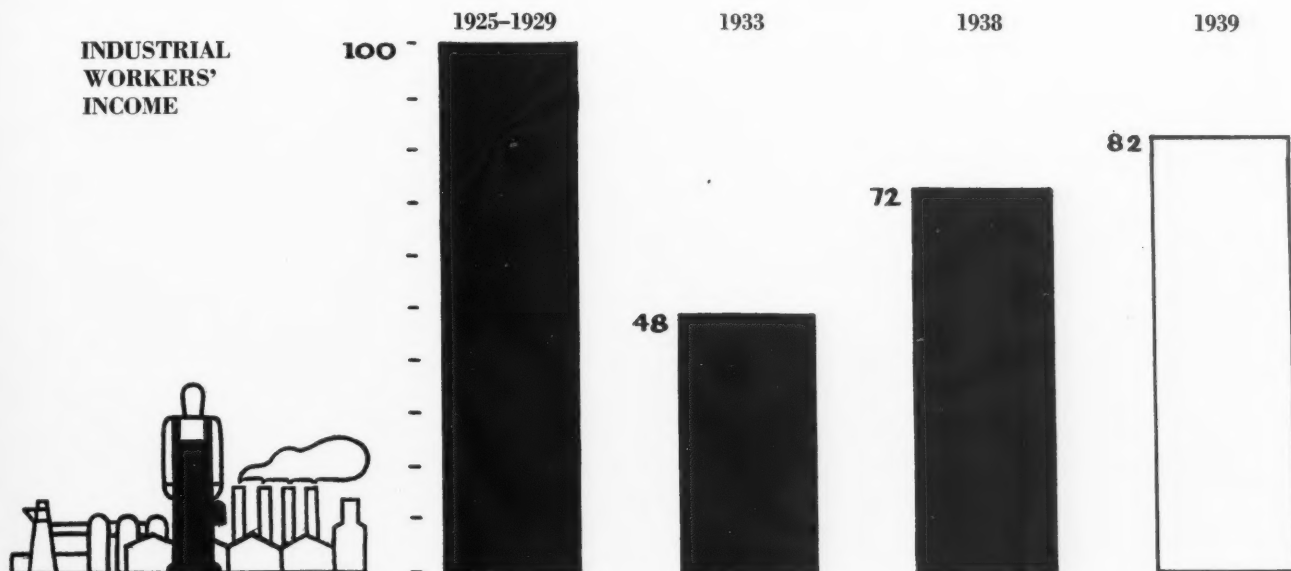


1938

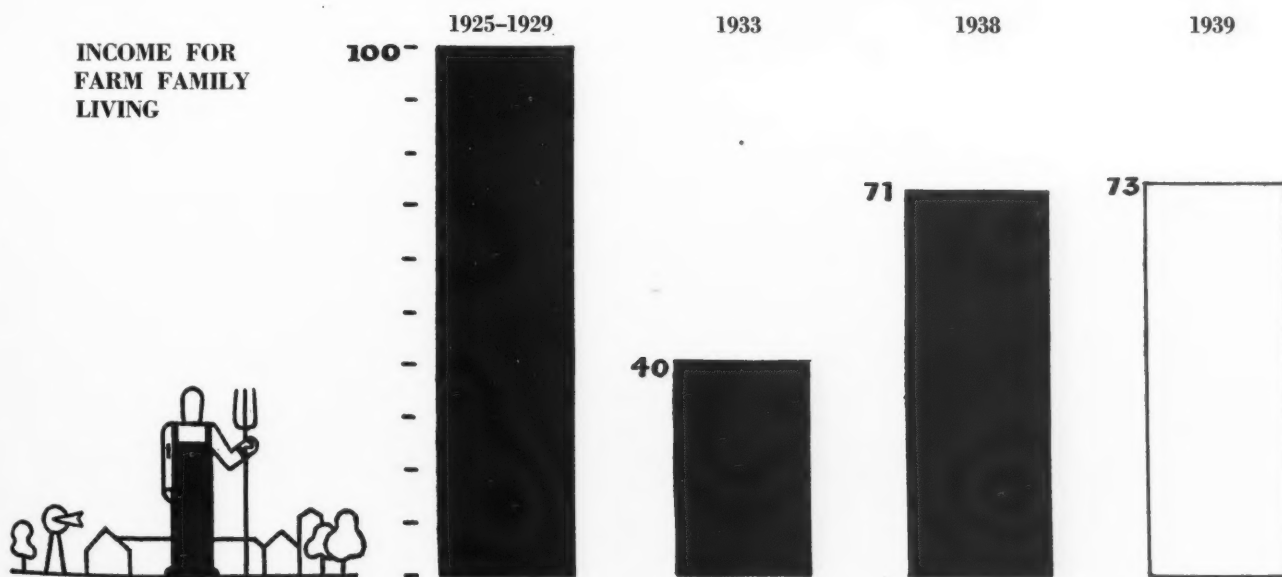


1939





These charts show where farmers' and workers' incomes in 1939 stood in relation to 1938, the bottom of the depression, and "prosperity" years. The white bars at the right represent the experts' estimates, based on incomplete data. Included in "industrial workers" are factory workers, miners, and railroad employees. Income for farm family living consists of gross farm income [income from the marketing of farm produce, the farm value of products produced and consumed at home, and Government payments] less the business expenses of operating farms.



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